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GEOGRAPHY IN THE LIFE OF THE PUPIL

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That our schools do not prepare those who attend them for the opportunities, the responsibilities, the problems of adult life is a statement frequently heard. If this charge be true, then our schools are failing to perform their essential function, for the great aim of education is to prepare for life in the highest sense. Its purpose is so to surround each child by the best influences and conditions, so to direct its physical, mental, and moral growth, that it shall, as a present and future member of society, live the highest life of which it is capable.

No one will question the statement that pupils should study those phases of human knowledge and human activity which will, in later years, enable them to be of the greatest service to themselves and to humanity. In fact, it may be said that the public school has no right to teach anything else. That these subjects should be so presented as to enter into the life interests of the learners is evident. Neither of these conditions is fully realized in practice, and hence the schools are not doing their full duty in training pupils for their life work.

Geography, as one of the fundamental subjects in the elementary school, should receive, as it has been receiving during recent years, the most careful consideration. Both subject-matter and methods of presentation are being examined in order to secure more valuable results. Until quite recently a knowledge

of geography was not regarded as an essential part of one's education. Indeed, it seems that it is not generally so regarded today, for our high-school and college graduates know much more of Latin, French, and German than of geography. For the former, the average citizen has comparatively little use, while a knowledge of the latter is constantly demanded in conversation, reading, travel, and business.

The study of geography can and should make our pupils closer observers, clearer thinkers, better reasoners. It should furnish them with information which will be helpful in almost any occupation. It should make them broad and sympathetic in their views. It should remove superstition. It should make traveling, reading, and conversation more pleasurable and more profitable.

In spite of this, and in spite of the fact that geography treats of those things in which both children and adults are deeply interested, and with which they are vitally concerned, the subject is said to be poorly taught. It is said that as a rule it is dry and uninteresting to pupils. It is not long since Dr. Hall characterized it as the "sick man of the curriculum." That there is *some* force in these criticisms every teacher realizes. I wish to point out a few fundamental weaknesses in our work, and to suggest a few improvements.

The failure of geography to enter fully into the lives of the pupils in the elementary school is not a matter of failing to provide for instruction in the subject, but rather to unwise selection and presentation of subject-matter. Although geography has made a remarkable advance during the last two decades it is still too largely a memory subject. Mere exercise of the memory is not necessarily interesting or educative. Unless geography is training our pupils to put together the links in the chain of cause and consequence it is being poorly taught. More important than this is the fact that it is not developing the habit of reasoning without which our pupils will, as adults, be drifted by the currents of popular opinion, now this way, and now that.

The great problem in geography is how to make the subject enter into the conscious experience of the child, for only as it is

to him a living reality, as it interests him, appeals to him, and influences his life in ways which are to him apparent, will he enter consciously and purposefully into its study. The subject must do more than offer information through the medium of the printed page; it should encourage the pupil to *experience* geography, and to contribute these experiences. Such opportunity as geography offers for the exercise of the constructive faculty should be used to the fullest extent. This can be carried out in the making of maps, charts, sketches, graphs, and models of various kinds. Where these conditions are not realized the results must always be meager, superficial, unsatisfactory.

The textbook still holds, and must always hold, an important place in the study of geography. The weaknesses of the book are therefore likely to be reflected in the work of pupil and teacher. Our geographies are too incomplete. The material is too fragmentary, too statistical. This is a necessary condition where the plan of treating all or a large part of the world in one book is followed. If each book dealt with the work of a single grade the topics taken up could be more fully and more interestingly presented. This would also make possible a larger number of maps and illustrations. In order to make good this deficiency in the text, supplementary readers should be very freely used. These bring out the human side of geography which always appeals to children. It is a mistake to use these books simply as readers. The topics should be studied and fully discussed by the pupils, and maps employed whenever they would be of service.

Under present conditions the questions in the text constitute an important factor in the work of the pupil. His preparation for the recitation is in large measure based upon these questions, and therefore very much depends upon their character. As a matter of fact the majority of the questions ignore the causal notion. Their study is dry and deadening to the pupil. In our very best texts about one-half of the questions tend to create thought.

Questions pertaining to position, dimensions, area, population are legitimate, and many such should be asked, but they should not dominate the work. The function of questioning is

to develop thought, not simply to secure answers. We can increase the interest and the value of the work by supplying questions of the right sort.

The following, which are simply suggestive, indicate how this might be applied to the British Isles:

Using your map, find the latitude of the British Isles. Compare this with the latitude of your state, and with that of Labrador. Using the scale, find the length and the average width of Great Britain. Compare with the dimensions of your state. What is the nature of the coast line? Is such a coast line an advantage or a disadvantage? Make a list of the sea-ports. Make a list of those on the Atlantic coast of the United States. Has the English Channel helped or hindered the development of the British Isles? Give reason for your answer. What part of the British Isles is best watered? Explain. If the mountains extended east and west how would they influence rainfall? Examine an isothermal chart of the British Isles and compare the temperatures with those in New England. Account for the difference. Is there snow in London during the winter? Do people sleigh-ride? Do they skate? Compare with winter conditions in Boston.

What part of England is best adapted to agriculture? Comparing the population with the area, do you think that England's agricultural products supply her demand? If not, where might she purchase wheat, flour, cotton, sugar, fruits, etc.

Locate the coal and iron-producing sections. Locate the manufacturing areas. How are the two related? What is the meaning of the expression, "Carrying coals to Newcastle?" What advantages has Great Britain for shipping her manufactured products? What articles have you seen that were made in the British Isles? Why do people come to America from the British Isles? Why do people go from the United States to that country?

These questions are by no means exhaustive. Similar lists pertaining to other areas can be worked up and placed upon the board to be used by the pupils during the periods devoted to the study of geography.

Special investigation, as well as the experience of the teacher, has shown that the geographical interests of children center in peoples, products, and industries. Hence work involving these topics should be made the basis of introductory geography, and should receive attention throughout the grades.

Our texts give very scanty attention to the industrial and social phases of geography as constituting the basis of the subject. One of the best devotes 107 pages to home geography and

of this number the first 79 pages treat of rivers, plains, mountains, the ocean, the air, etc. The remaining 28 pages, or about 25 per cent. of the whole, deal with the human side. Another recent text devotes 45 pages to home geography, 17 of which, or about 40 per cent., treat of the industrial and the social. In other texts introductory geography is almost entirely physical and astronomical.

The child has a more active interest in a snow-white cotton field, in the picking and the ginning of the crop, in its transportation to the mills, and its transformation into wearing apparel, than he has in the conditions of soil, temperature, and moisture, which make the crop possible. Not only this, he sees a closer connection between the industrial and social conditions and himself, than he does between the physical and his individual life.

The story of the necessities of life runs back and forth on bands of steel or over ocean wave, connecting the most distant lands and peoples with the community, with the pupil himself. This is home geography in the largest sense, for the home cannot be understood unless its relation to remote areas is seen. The people of a community and of the world are held together by the chains of mutual industrial, and social interdependence slowly forged through centuries of development in the habits and demands of daily life.

This study of the industrial and social does not ignore the facts of surface, climate, and location. These are of necessity taken up and given more meaning than they would otherwise have.

Among the lessons taught by this phase of geography is the great truth that physical labor is absolutely necessary and honorable. If the pupil sits beside a cheery coal fire while the snow is drifting out of doors, it is because deep beneath the earth's surface men with hands and faces blackened by contact with coal, with bodies weary from labor, toil day after day although constantly exposed to the most terrible dangers. This general truth of the necessity for co-operation and the dignity of labor is presented in different forms as each industry is studied.

While geography deals with the realities of life—human

beings, streams, forests, mountains, mines—these are for the most part studied through the use of symbols. Here we have another reason for the difficulty experienced in placing geography among the life-interests of the child. The great value of the excursion is now generally recognized, although it is still much more largely a matter of theory than of practice. Nothing else can give such life and value to geography. With the great inspiring picture spread out before us; the wonderful works of nature, and the marvelous works of man, we ask the pupil to step in doors, and *read about these things.*

That practical difficulties confront us when we attempt to do field work is well known, yet, if all teachers, school authorities, and parents realized fully the importance of this method of study, these obstacles would, in large measure, be removed. The taking of an occasional half day or entire day for excursions should not be regarded as an interference with the regular work of the school. The time is not far distant when out-of-door work will occupy a prominent place in elementary instruction. The excursion should by no means be limited to the observation and study of geographic forms and processes, but should include mills, factories, quarries, museums, and many other centers of human activity. The trips need not be and should not be expensive. If carefully planned and skilfully handled the danger attending them is not worth considering.

Pictures constitute a very valuable aid in the teaching of geography. Here again practice falls short of theory. Merely exhibiting the pictures is not enough, although there is value in this. The teacher should ask questions concerning them so as to encourage close observation.

The modern stereoscopic views are an inspiration to pupils. While using them one can easily imagine that he is observing the actual objects which they represent. The stereopticon should find a much more general use in the elementary school. By means of the slides we may take our pupils on in-door excursions to all parts of the world.

Much material in the form of raw and finished products can be brought into the schoolroom. In studying other states and

countries, pupils should be encouraged to bring to the school articles which came from those regions. The list of materials easily obtained is a long one.

Through the efforts of pupils and teacher a school museum of some considerable value, can be worked up. The materials, in connection with pictures and descriptions written by the children, could be so arranged as to present a graphic history of some of the most important industries. When desired they could be so placed as to show their geographical distribution.

Travel is a most potent factor in vitalizing the work in geography. The knowledge and the inspiration obtained by every member of this association who has traveled across the continent to attend this convention can be used to great advantage for years to come. Pupils are always deeply interested in what the teacher has actually seen.

In many schools there are pupils who have enjoyed the benefits of some travel. This contact with geography at first hand should be drawn upon to the fullest extent. As early in the year as possible the teacher should learn just what regions have been seen by pupils. This information can be tabulated and the topics assigned pupils at the proper times. In all cases where trips are being described the routes followed should be carefully traced upon a map before the class.

The exchange of letters by schools in different parts of the country while by no means new, should be much more generally practiced. If one letter a month were written by each grade throughout the year, pupils would be in possession of a very valuable picture of changing landscape, planting, and harvesting of crops, weather conditions, migration of birds, blossoming of wild flowers. In addition there would be descriptions of the surface, natural resources, industries, and the daily lives of the people. If a different section were selected by each grade in the school, and the practice kept up from year to year, it would add immensely to the pupils' knowledge of geography. Pictures accompanying such letters would be a very valuable feature. Several pupils should have a hand in the writing of each geography-letter, thus multiplying the benefit received.

To summarize: Geography while intimately connected with daily life, is not as vital a part of school life as it should be or can be made. Our texts, while steadily improving, are still too meager and statistical in character. A striking weakness is shown by the map questions which do not serve sufficiently to develop thought. The books should be more limited in scope, thus making it possible to treat given areas more interestingly and fully. The map questions should be supplemented by others tending to create more interest and greater mental activity.

Introductory geography should be based upon the industrial and social phases of the subject, as investigation has shown that the geographical interests of children are strong along this line. Such study connects geography directly and vitally with the actual daily life of each pupil, not only as applied to the home, but as applied to the world as well. More use should be made of pictures, stereoscopic views, and slides, as well as of such materials, raw and manufactured, as can be supplied by pupils and teacher. Every school should start a museum which will increase in size and usefulness with each succeeding year.

Such knowledge of areas beyond the immediate vicinity as has been acquired by teacher or pupils through actual observation should be used to the fullest extent. The exchange of letters by schools in different parts of the country can be made a source of the greatest interest and profit.

In these ways geography can be made to enter more fully into the school life of the pupil, and to enlist his conscious and purposeful participation in its study. It will then be fulfilling its deeper function, the training for the larger experiences which follow those of school days.

SHOULD THE MUNICIPAL PLAYGROUNDS BE CONTROLLED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION?

DWIGHT HEALD PERKINS

A playground is an outdoor space where boys and girls may play without restriction; where "keep-off-the-grass" signs do not appear; where space for running and jumping and apparatus for play are provided, and where squealing is not prohibited. It differs from a park in that the emphasis is put upon play and not upon the beauties of nature. While growing green must be provided along the borders or in secluded spots, it must always be so arranged as not to interfere with the activities of children nor even be affected by their heedlessness.

Whether playgrounds be controlled by park boards or boards of education is to some degree a minor matter; it is all the municipality. Both are supported by funds raised by taxation imposed upon the citizens, who reap the benefits.

The discussion is, therefore, not one of principle, but one of expediency. It relates to the details of carrying out a scheme the general principles of which I believe we are all agreed upon.

It is admitted that playgrounds must be supervised; that rotation, equal opportunity, and proper use of facilities cannot be left to the children alone; they must be conscious of the presence of some authority. This supervision need not be oppressive, negative, or restrictive. It should be quite the opposite; it should be suggestive and should divert the mind from mischief-making into a line of activity which would cause the mischief-maker to forget his intended pranks. It must always be regarded by children as a privilege to enter a playground, and that privilege must be obtained and retained by proper behavior.

I wish to answer some objections often brought against the control of playgrounds by boards of education. It is often asserted that boards lack funds. This I regard as a temporary objection and not one based upon permanent principles. I see no reason for separating the funds of education from other municipal governing or taxing bodies. If the board cannot raise

money—and I believe that it can as soon as the public is convinced of the necessity—it would certainly be possible for the municipal government to turn over to the board such amount of money as would be spent by it for playground purposes. With the increased funds from that source the board would be equipped with financial power, and would be in a position to work energetically on this problem.

It is also urged that teachers are already overworked, and that this would place on them an additional burden. I grant that they are overworked, but I think that you will also grant, if we may coin the phrase, that they are "underplayed" (as well as underpaid). I believe that the association of teachers with their pupils while at play would be just as much real recreation for the teachers as it is for the children. I believe that it would be money well spent if sufficient teachers were employed to give them time to direct the children in their play.

The objection, that it would put the playgrounds under the adverse influences of political machinery may be answered. My answer is that this objection insofar as it is true is a reflection only upon those people who stay away from the primaries and the polls and do not take an active part in politics. We may as well admit that we can do nothing to change this situation until we become politicians. We may as well admit that this country is governed, taxes are raised and expended, and public officers are nominated and elected by the people by means of political methods.

I of course assume that civil-service methods of appointment prevail—at least to the extent that they do in Chicago in 1907. I would not advocate playground management under either an educational board or a municipal government unless employees were selected and retained upon merit. If the opposite were the case it would be better to abolish playgrounds altogether.

It is useless to talk of avoiding the politician. If he does not do as he should, we must either take his place or abide the results uncomplainingly. I have had the pleasure of associating with politicians of both parties; men about whom we read uncomplimentary things in the press. I have seen them work energetically and unselfishly for the establishment of playgrounds. In my

seven years' experience as a member of the special park commission of Chicago I have never received any interference from any politician. So far as my personal experience goes they have always assisted in a patriotic manner in the establishment and maintenance of small parks and playgrounds, and I am sure that their establishment could never have been brought about without such assistance. Aldermen are unpopular in their wards now unless they secure playgrounds for their constituents, and the political value of this movement is appreciated more by them than by outsiders. You should take advantage of that fact.

Playgrounds are not parks. They are for recreation, while parks are for rest. The parks attract a tired person, while playgrounds are for those having undirected and superfluous energy. In the parks one is brought into contact with flowers, shrubs, and trees. Their problem is bringing the country to the people if the people cannot be taken to the country, and it differs widely from that of the playgrounds.

Playgrounds are essentially educational; in fact they are the basis of the development of children. Being educational, they naturally should come under the board of education rather than under park supervision. The objection that is raised in regard to park people being more expert in that line is not an objection that is applicable to playgrounds nor one which should govern in this discussion.

It is said that the hours of school are limited from 9 A. M. to 3:30 P. M., and that the grounds are only open from 8 A. M. to 5 P. M. This is a mere matter of administration. I see no reason why the grounds should not be open from 6 A. M. to 11 P. M. This does not mean that attendants would have to stay that entire period; it merely means organization. Who would think of limiting our transportation facilities from 8 A. M. to 5 P. M.? They are practically in operation twenty-four hours a day, but their employees work but eight or nine hours each day. There is always a transfer of shifts.

Children are always doing something when they are awake, and there is no reason why their entire time should not be used in a pleasant, natural, and instructive manner. There is also no reason why this cannot be done in a schoolhouse as a neighbor-

hood center without interfering with the ordinary life or functions of the home. Many of those functions, so far as recreation is concerned, are impossible in the home, and even if they could exist there it would be better to transfer them to the neighborhood center.

I submit the following affirmative reasons in support of the position which I have taken, and I further state that any person may be convinced of the correctness of the affirmative side of this question by reading an article entitled "The Playground as a Part of the Public School," written by Mr. Joseph Lee, of Boston. This and other articles of his contain sufficient argument, I believe, to maintain the position here taken. Several of the points which I have mentioned have been suggested by Mr. Lee's papers.

I know of nothing, unless it be the water and sewerage system, which so completely covers the entire area of the city as the public-school system does. The schools are within walking distance of everybody. As soon as an open prairie is converted into a thickly or even a sparsely inhabited district and the residents are too remote from the school to reach it by walking there is a demand for a new school building, and that demand is complied with just as soon as conditions permit. The schools are not only everywhere, but they represent in value the sum of $40,000,000.00. They belong to the people, and a calculation of the interest lost by the non-use of this investment for one-half or even one-third of the time would convince any business man, I believe, of the wisdom and necessity for making use of this plant twenty-four hours in the day, if that is a possible thing.

It is necessary to the work of the educator. This is true notwithstanding the fact that playgrounds are for all children old enough to walk prior to school age and all children so long as they are able to walk after their school life is over. The less separation between people under and over school age and those in school the better. The special park commission of Chicago has indorsed this contention by locating its playgrounds adjacent to schools wherever possible.

The combining of schools with playgrounds makes possible contact between teachers and pupils through play as well as study relations; each helps the other if the play is not advertised as

"educational." The relation of play and physical culture to mental and character development should not be broken. There is a great opportunity for co-operation here. The unified organization and management and the avoidance of duplication should appeal to educators, park people, the business man, and taxpayers. No clashing of authority need arise under unified management. This should occur only in the case of dual management. The same would apply to the interference in programmes.

The schools run about nine months in the year. Under this management they should run twelve months in the year. The educational work at the University of Chicago runs twelve months in the year. This does not mean that teachers and students have no vacation, for they do, but there is an opportunity at all times for persons to study there. There should also be an opportunity at all times for pupils to improve by either study or play in the public-school buildings and grounds.

The apparatus could be made to conform to the educational necessities if the board of education had control over the funds with which to provide such apparatus. The providing and maintenance of pet animals and birds could be arranged for so that children might study their habits and enjoy their companionship. This is distinctly an educational feature which would require out-of-door space.

It is not necessary to speak of the educational and character-developing power of flowers. It is said that children wilfully destroy flowers. In answer to this I will say that when the flowers are constantly replaced, and the excitement of a chase or of escaping punishment is taken away, the child gradually loses his motive for destruction and grows into the desire to protect the plants.

In addition to the saving already mentioned is the saving in building construction. There is no reason why the basement of schools should not be used for toilet-rooms, shelters, etc., instead of duplicating them in the playgrounds. A great deal of money could be saved in this way, and as for the destruction of the school property by such use, it can be so built that it would be just as durable as the buildings erected in small parks for use by the public.

Playground space is needed for light and air for buildings.

It is not wasted, considering the interests of the pupils alone. We must have sunlight in every elementary classroom during some part of the day.

The board of education now, through its physician in the child-study department and through visiting nurses, concerns itself directly and actively in regard to the physical condition of the school children. Through its physical-culture director it develops children's bodies in order that they may become better students. Why should not the physical-culture director, who daily makes use of an indoor gymnasium, for the same reasons make use of an outdoor gymnasium? Why should not the work of the physician be supplemented by such work in the gymnasium as would remedy such defects as may be discovered by the physician.

The teacher's work, in my opinion, is the noblest of all professions. Teachers are, by their training and work, better fitted for the care of children and for the control of their symmetrical development than any other class of persons. It is, therefore, only natural that they would be the best persons who could be obtained to direct and co-operate in the physical exercises indulged in by the children. As a result of such co-operation a cameraderie can be established which will take the place of discipline.

In conclusion, after stating the above reasons for the affirmative side of this question, I wish to fall back for corroboration upon Professor Charles Zueblin of the University of Chicago. On pages 276 and 277 of his book entitled *American Municipal Progress* the following paragraph appears, which I quote in full, and which I submit as an authorative indorsement of the position which I have taken:

> Children's playgrounds are as necessary as schools to the welfare of the modern community. The idea that the public interest in the child ceases at the close of the school session has to be abandoned in the contemporary city. Along with the restricted opportunity for play in the city streets there has come a conception of the value of rational recreation which has its application in both city and country. Regularly equipped playgrounds with apparatus and the direction of skilled teachers or attendants, to encourage both individual and organized play, will soon doubtless be a part of the public-school system throughout the land.

REPORT FOR COMMITTEE OF NINETEEN OF THE INTERNATIONAL KINDERGARTEN UNION

LUCY WHEELOCK
Chairman

History repeats itself. This old saying was never more fully exemplified than in the present kindergarten situation. The various protesting movements in the church resulted in the division into sects and the formation of many creeds expressing all shades of belief. Today the liberal of even twenty years ago is a conservative, and there is a larger spirit of Christian unity than the world has ever known.

A Congress of Religions is possible, and an Educational Religious Association, which gives a platform to members of any denomination with a true and sincere message. There is a fraternity between orthodox and liberal, and "the brotherhood of man" is no mere phrase.

In the same way the kindergartners are approaching a larger spirit of unity through a process of reconciliation of differences. We are illustrating the Froebelian law of mediation in our recognition of the harmony possible, even where widest differences of opinion exist and are tolerated.

It is necessary for the encouragement and strengthening of the younger workers, who are disquieted "by wars and rumors of wars," to declare that the differences between us are the inevitable results of growth and freedom of thought; that they must express themselves in matters of technique and in our preferences for one school of philosophy and psychology or another; but they are not separating, and do not generally affect the aims and underlying principles controlling kindergarten practice.

Some of the apparent differences are mere variations of phraseology; some of them are indisputably different interpretations of theory and different illustrations of the same principles.

There has been a frank and friendly statement of our diver-

gences and much discussion of the same. May there not now be a reconciling view, which shall help to bind us together in a united body, standing for one aim and one unified effort for the preservation in its integrity of the kindergarten as the finest type of early educational procedure?

The reactionary movement has been no doubt necessary and helpful as a protest against any chance of arrested development through a crystallization of practice and the ever-present danger of a perfection of system. It has had its effect in making us all give heed to our ways and reasons for the faith that is in us.

In order to come to a better understanding of the situation, each member of the Committee of Nineteen has been asked to prepare a statement of what seemed to her the points of issue between the two schools of kindergartners. To this request twelve members have responded. At first reading it seemed impossible to collate these statements and make any report from them. They are so varied in treatment and in the points of view that no composite can be made. I have not attempted to bring together the papers, nor to quote from them, but rather to present a report of the total impression conveyed, supplemented by my recollection of the fuller expansion of the topics in our previous discussions.

I have endeavored not to give a personal coloring to the matter except in a few instances where I have yielded to the temptation to declare my own belief and have so stated.

From the many points made by the writers of the statements I have selected those most frequently mentioned. A few declare differences between kindergartners to be essential and others superficial. Those who deem differences fundamental consider interpretation rather than the truth itself. The difference is one of emphasis or degree or of attitude, not of fundamental doctrine.

The topics most frequently mentioned as causing variation of practice are as follows: (1) Adherence to Froebel and Froebelian philosophy; (2) Theory of play, relation of play to work; (3) Place of instinct in early education; (4) The sense image versus the idea; (5) The doctrine of interest as applied to the programme; (6) Symbolism and the *Mother-Play*.

FROEBEL AND FROEBELIAN LITERATURE

There is undoubtedly a difference in the attitude of the kindergartners toward Froebel and Froebelian literature and the use of the established Froebel material in the kindergarten. No one for a moment holds that Froebel or any other man has said or ever will say a final word on education. A few believe that we have not yet understood Froebel and the fulness of his gospel, nor given sufficient study to his *Mother-Play* and other books. Others would give larger place to the study of other educational writers of the past and present and especial value to the contributions of modern genetic psychology and child-study. The latter group believes that in recent psychological studies we may find a more present help than in the philosophy of Froebel's time. All would agree in giving Froebel the first place as a pioneer in child-study and as a man rarely gifted with sympathy and insight.

In the use of the special Froebel material in the kindergarten and training-school there is evidently wide latitude. All kindergartners admit some outside material, although many would limit it to what is definitely in line with the established system. Some insist upon the importance of preserving the integrity of the gifts, of presenting them in logical sequence, of keeping unbroken the chain of connection from solid to point. No one discards the gifts altogether, but in many instances selections are made of building and other material for illustrative and group work. Some advocate reconstruction of the kindergarten hand-work from the standpoint of hygiene and of art. The original classification of the various forms made under the heads, Life, Knowledge, and Beauty, is considered of importance by many of the committee. Some members would not admit that arrangements of symmetry alone express children's aesthetic ideas and feelings. They depreciate the imposition of abstractions of knowledge in the mathematical and analytic lessons sometimes given with the gifts.

THEORIES OF PLAY AND WORK

There are, as among other observers of child-life, varying theories of play, and of the relation of play to work. Those who believe the child to be filled with reverberations from the

past and impelled to physical movements and play activities practiced by a remote ancestry, select folk-plays and those imitating the movements of animals and gymnastic games which exercise the larger muscles. Those who prefer to consider the child as "father to the man," anticipating in play the practice of later life, will choose the plays illustrating human life and relationships—those which present in dramatic form great institutional ideals, which prefigure the child's place in a social whole.

From one view point the boy's impulse to climb a tree is due to the fact of his arboreal ancestry. To the other, it is his desire to transcend limitations, to find a new world, "to look abroad on foreign lands."

Is there after all any contradiction in these two views; is not the child both a rehearsal and the prophecy, a link between the past and the future? Do we not find Janus everywhere with faces looking both ways?

There is also a difference among kindergartners in the degree of freedom or organization of play. The advocacy of free play which was in reality free disorder has passed, and all agree with Plato, Froebel, and other observers of children as to the need of harmony, rhythm, law, and guidance in play. One of the special functions of the kindergarten is the educational guidance of the play activities of children toward desired ends.

The relation of play to work is another mooted question. One school would protect the child at the kindergarten stage from premature initiation into activities which take on an industrial form. The other school holds that play is the child's serious business; that it becomes more rational and interesting when a goal is set, which may be recognized and reached through the energizing impulses of play. It believes that the natural preparation for work is through a gradual transformation of the play instinct into productive activity.

THE RECOGNITION OF INSTINCTS IN EDUCATION

A matter closely related to the foregoing is the place of instinct in the early education. We divide here in reference to the recognition to be granted certain instincts during the kinder-

garten period. How far shall we yield to the taste for the crude and the barbaric in music, in art, and in story? How shall the child's instinct to represent be guided? How shall he use color? Can he appreciate the refinements of a landscape? Does he really feel the effects he seems to produce in making color sketches of sunsets, clouds, and mountains? Is his art sense best trained by formal arrangements of squares, triangles, and other geometric forms? Shall the stories told be so revised as to eliminate all reference to evil, cruelty, and wrong? Are they sometimes robbed of vigor in the process of refining? What is the place of imitation in art, in construction, in conduct? What is its relation to originality? Which instincts shall be strengthened and guided to full fruition, which shall be suppressed and cast off as soon as possible? These are some of the topics which have been touched upon in the discussions of the committee.

Another matter mentioned in several papers is the *sense image* versus the *idea.* Does the kindergarten child work from a clear and definite mental picture, which he tries to realize in outward form, or does he work from a general notion? Is it a concrete or an abstract table he represents? Does he work from the particular to the general, or vice versa, or is it a double process? Can he comprehend the generalized type forms, and do they aid him in his process of world discovery; or must he grasp many individual objects and build up his idea of the type through successive sense impressions? Is dictation to suggest the *image* or the *ideal* of the object to be made? These questions have been considered at our committee sessions, and there is a variation of belief and practice. Certain of our members believe that children work more intelligently when a clear mental picture precedes the act of making. Others emphasize the value of the creative process as a means of self-discovery. This question, as affecting methods of gift work, is most practical, and demands careful consideration. The teachers of psychology and kindergarten methods in the training-schools should give especial attention to this matter that the young kindergartner may have some guidance before her own experience entitles her to draw conclusions.

THEORY OF INTEREST

The theory of interest is another subject of practical import, as our programmes are the outgrowth of our special views thereon. The issue is not *interest* versus *will,* for we should all agree that the nature of mind hath joined these together, and only a very blundering teacher can put them asunder. To *will* and to *do* are two steps in any working process, and interest supplies the causal energy. The real question at stake is, Which interests are most beneficial in child development, and which should be appealed to in our choice of subject-matter? Children are interested in what is going on about them at home and in the community, in special days and occasions. The immediate environment is rich in its attractive suggestions. In the recurrence of the seasons, the varied aspects of old Mother Earth, the teeming life of the streets and the shop, and in the home and family circle we have subject matter of real and permanent value for reproduction in dramatic and constructive forms. Is this the whole environment of the child, or is there an intellectual as well as an accidental and immediate environment? Are there spiritual mansions as well as local habitations? One school of kindergartners assert that the mind is self-environing, that through imagination it may lay hold upon a larger world than that which the eyes behold. They would transcend the limits of the actual and often sordid environment. Those holding this faith would not give much time to the illustration of phases of experience, which are temporary and limited; but to those larger aspects which connect present and future by bonds of true and enduring worth. They demand continuity and logical sequence in the programme; stories modeled after certain universal types, plays which reveal the great institutional life of man in dramatic form, and present ideals of conduct which appeal to the imagination.

On the other hand, those who believe in the social training of children through their present recognition of social situations calling for an immediate response, believe that the natural subject-matter of a programme is found in the every-day experiences of children, which are largely bound up with the domestic and

home occupations, and the fundamental industrial work of the community. These differences of belief plainly appear in the choice of giftwork and handwork. We have

The constructive	versus	The creative school
Use or Utility	versus	Beauty
The emphasis on constructive work in wood and paper, and sometimes in domestic processes	versus	Emphasis on distinction, classification and unification of elementary qualities.
Emphasis on the product	versus	Emphasis on the creative process
Emphasis on the craftsman or artisan	versus	Emphasis on the artist
Emphasis upon doing the *real* thing	versus	Emphasis upon *make-believe* play

There seems to be unanimity of opinion as to the desirability of some connected plan of work, which shall prevent a teacher from laying undue stress upon the temporary and accidental. There is a general assent to the position that no plan of work, however excellent, can be rigidly applied everywhere, and under all conditions. Whether the programme be made by a collective body or evolved by an individual to meet her own needs, the critical question is what are the true interests of childhood, which should grow into permanent tastes and tendencies? The choice of subject-matter is determined by our answers to this question.

SYMBOLISM

Here we find ourselves confronted with the matter of symbolism, which has not yet been taken up as a topic of discussion by the committee, although referred to in a few of the papers. As far as I can discover, differences here are more verbal than actual. We all hold that the child's realm by right of eminent domain is the realm of fancy. We believe in the fairy tale, the Mother Goose rhyme, and the dramatic play, which lead beyond the boundaries of the actual to

> Where the roads on every hand
> Lead onward into Fairyland.

"The child like the poet puts eyes and a tongue into all he sees." Things speak to him with a voice and a message, which he hears, although he cannot tell what they say. We all agree that any

wise man may pluck a leaf and read a sermon on it. We know that there is an inner eye which is the bliss of solitude, that there are treasures which moth and rust cannot corrupt.

We do not need to agree in our opinions as to the symbolism of the gifts. That is a matter which concerns only the adult student, and has never colored our practice. We may believe in unity, and fail to see its embodiment in the ball. We may believe in evolution, and be unable to see it illustrated in the gift series; but the ball will be prized as a good plaything for children nevertheless, and the gifts furnish admirable building material.

We also must continue to differ in our estimate of the symbolic value of the *Mother-Play*. We differ in our use of it in our kindergarten programme, and in our choice of its plays; but we are of one mind as to the great service the book renders in classifying and arranging in practical form the most typical and important experiences of a normal child-life, and in illuminating the deep meaning "which oft lies hid in childish play." As we take individual instances of Froebel's symbolism divested of the artificiality often thrown around them by too much explanation, I think we should mostly agree as to their validity. That much of sentimentality and many mystifying interpretations have been connected with the use of this book we deplore; but is not this true of any great book, which attempts to set forth in poetic form the great relationships of a life? One may not agree with Froebel in his explanation of the fascination of a timepiece for a child. He frankly states that he does not force his conviction upon anyone, and adds that such a conviction harms no one, and, if generally shared, might result in great good to the rising generation. One is reminded of the answer of Turner to the woman, who complained that she could not see the colors he painted in the sky. "Don't you wish you could, Madam," was his pitying rejoinder. We are also reminded of the lines of an English poet of some eminence never accused of excessive sentiment, who apparently cherished Froebel's feeling of the significance of a clock.

> We take no note of time, save from its flight;
> To give it then a tongue were wise in man.

A clock means something to all of us. It is more than a mere

combination of wood, metal, and glass, impressing a certain sound upon the auditory nerve. To the most careless in moments of pause it may say, "Forever, never; never, forever." In such moments it bids us value time as we value life, "for time is the stuff life is made of."

Our acceptance of symbolism is a matter of degree, and of individual capacity for seeing. We are not all of "the city," which Benson so eloquently describes in his *From a College Window,* but we may all at times dream of its lofty spires and walls of gold and pearl and amethyst. I believe, and this is my individual creed, that the highest service Froebel has rendered to those who study his educational theories is that of interpreter of the realities that surround us, and live within us; for "we live by admiration, faith, and love."

This very inadequate summary of the topics, which have forced themselves upon our consideration from the present kindergarten situation, is offered not for the purpose of more sharply defining differences; but as an effort to find the reconciling view, which shall enable us to strengthen our work and our influence as a body of educators through that union and co-operation necessary to the advance of any movement. Discussions are profitable; but dissension is not so. It is always right to dissent and to divide on matters of principle; but never on matters of opinion or individual interpretation. We may be of one faith although not of one practice; we may be members of one body, and recognize that each member has a different office. Is it not well now that we emphasize those things which we hold in common, and which are, after all, the essentials? May we not rally for the preservation of the kindergarten as a distinctive type of educational practice under the common standard of the master, who has given us our educational name and significance, and whose final charge to his friends was to strive for unity of life? May I be permitted also to remind you of the Great Teacher, who committed his gospel to a band of men ordained to carry it to the world, with this last prayer: "Neither pray I for these alone, but for them also which shall believe on me through their word, that they may all be one, that the world may believe that thou hast sent me."

HISTORY OF CHICAGO

PEARL BACKUS CARLEY
Third Grade, Francis W. Parker School

The children of the third grade have studied the history of the growth of Chicago from the time it was a mere trading-post and fort, environed by swamps, through its pioneer stage; and through their own struggles with some of the problems of these early settlers, they have come to a genuine, though childish realization of some of the most obvious of the present needs of the city.

The work will appear in *The Elementary School Teacher* in two sections; the first being "Chicago of Long Ago," and the second, "Some of the Past and Present Problems of Chicago—Transportation, Water Supply, and Drainage."

To present the work adequately it would be necessary to give much of the correlated work in geography, industrial science, mathematics, handwork, and art. It would be essential to give the reading-slips that have been specially adapted from reliable sources and printed for the use of the children. However, one child's work in the subject makes a book of about 150 pages. We are therefore forced, in reducing this material to the limit of two articles, to select from among the papers written by the children only those most essential in telling a brief story of Chicago's growth through the past century.

The motive of making a book of the history of Chicago which is to be both complete and beautiful appeals very strongly to the children of the third grade. Its tendency is to bring about the maximum of good careful work, and to reduce the amount of drill necessary to secure accurate formal work to the minimum. The second great incentive to careful work in expression has been the pictures with which the books are illustrated. Each child has nearly 50 pictures (obtained by teacher and reduced to proper size) from histories, books in the public library, pictures in buildings, and from historical landmarks, such as tablets and statues.

The index given below will give some idea of the contents of each child's book:

PART I

How Chicago Looked a Hundred Years Ago
- Swamps in Chicago
- Some of the Birds Found in Swamps
  - Red-winged Blackbird
  - Yellow-headed Blackbird
  - The King-fisher
  - The Snipe
  - The Turnstone
  - The Little Green Heron
  - The Great Blue Heron
  - Sora Rail
  - Wild Geese
  - Wood Duck
  - Woodcock

Stories of Indians
- Indians' Dress
- Indian Homes
  - Wigwam
  - Summer Home
  - Winter Home

Indian Village
How the Indians Travel
How They Cook Their Food
How They Light Their Fires
How They Gather Wild Rice
How They Hunt and Fish
- Elk Hunting
- Buffalo Hunting
- Hunting Buffalo with Decoys
- Antelope Hunting
- Hunting Deer with Decoys
- Hunting Bears
- Hunting on Snowshoes
- Story of Beavers
- Trapping Animals
- Fishing
- Fishing with Bow and Arrow
- Fishing with Soap Root

Picture-writing
Building Canoes
Indians in Lincoln Park

Building Fort Dearborn
Plan of Fort Dearborn
Mr. Kinzie Comes to Chicago
The Kinzie Mansion
Fur-trading
How Chicago Looked in 1812
Tecumseh
Revolutionary War
War of 1812
First Indian Trouble
Massacre of Fort Dearborn
Black Partridge
Captain William Wayne Wells
Fort Dearborn Statue

PART II

After the War of 1812
Fort Dearborn Rebuilt
Government Bought Land for Canal
Coming of Settlers
How They Traveled
  Traveling in Flat Boats
  Traveling in Prairie Schooners
  Traveling in Sledges
  Traveling in Ox Carts
  Traveling on Pack Horses
  Mr. and Mrs. Kinzie's Traveling Experiences
How Chicago Looked in 1831
Making Dip Candles
Making Candles with Molds
Making Gas
How Gas Is Collected
How Gas Is Made on a Large Scale
Old-fashioned Flint and Steel
Old-fashioned Fire Place
River Water
Sweep Wells
Selling Water from a Cart
Water System—Log Pipes—Pier 150 Feet Long
  First City Water Works
  Second City Water Works
    The Tunnel
    The Crib
  The Drainage Canal
  Plan for North Shore Sewers

How the River Used to Bend
Chicago Harbor
Lifting Chicago Out of the Mud
Intersecting Sewers
The Train of Cars
The F. W. P. Fast Freight

CHICAGO OF LONG AGO

Part I

HOW CHICAGO LOOKED A HUNDRED YEARS AGO

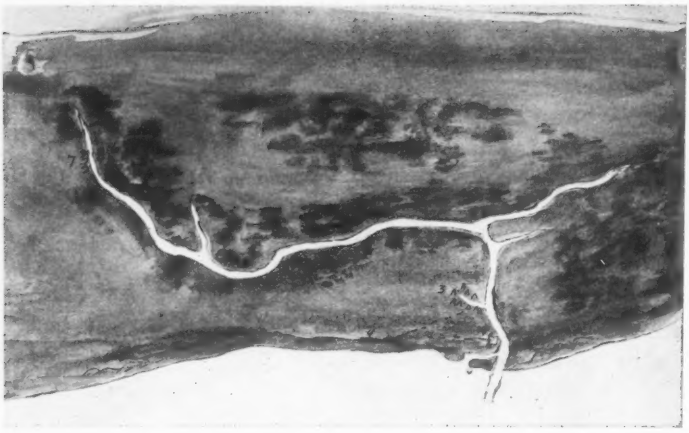
Long ago there were Indians all around Chicago. The only house was a log cabin on the north side of the river. There were swamps all around. In the swamps there were snipe, heron, wild geese and wild ducks. There were many wigwams on the south side of the river. In the log cabin there lived a Cuban, whose name was Mr. Au Sable. Mr. Au Sable came to Chicago to try to be an Indian chief, but the Indians would not have him, so he sold the cabin to Mr. LeMai. He came to trade with the Indians. Then he sold it to Mr. John Kinzie, who stayed here as long as he lived. In the tall grass there were prairie chickens, and further out on the prairies there were buffaloes. In the woods were bear, foxes, and wolves. There were deer in the woods too. There were no street lamps to be seen, no houses nor cars. The squirrels frisked in the trees. There were beautiful flowers in swamps and along the banks of the river. ELEANOR HOLBROOK

SWAMPS

If you had been in Chicago years ago you would have seen many swamps on the South Side. A man lived here in 1830 and wrote to his friend telling him how the hunting was, and this is a portion of the letter: "Vast quantities of water fowl were feeding on the wild rice, seeds, and insects in the swamps. . . . . Swan, geese, and brant, passing to and fro in clouds, keep up an incessant cackling. . . . . There were ducks of every kind, from the mallard and canvasback down to the tiny water-witch and blue-winged teel—while hundreds of gulls hovered gracefully over the swamp."

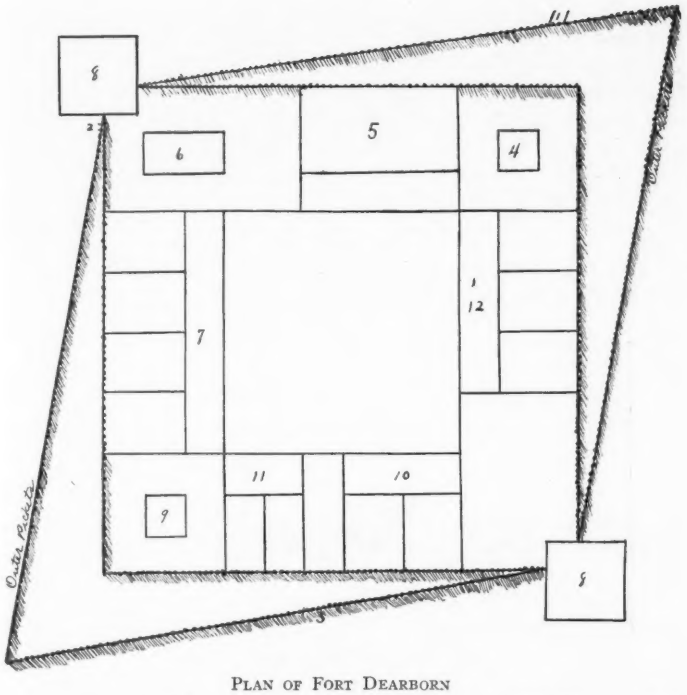
LUDWELL LINCOLN

We have not all visited the swamps but some of us have seen swamps. We had a number of pictures and slides of swamps. This is the way the swamp looked to us. The tall reeds, rushes, cat-tails, wild rice, and water lilies grew in them. You will find dragon-flies and fish and frogs there too. The yellow-headed blackbird and red-winged blackbird are swamp birds. They feed on the wild rice. ELIZABETH BECK



1. Fort Dearborn.—2. Kinzie House.—3. Indian Encampment.—4. Indian Trail.—5. Sand Hills—Battle Ground, 1812.—6. Lee's Cabin.—7. Hay Stacks.

1. Fort.—2. Kinzie House.—3. Well.—4. Wash House.—5. Shop.—6. Gate.—7. Barn.—8. Garden.—9. Cultivated Field.—10. Road —11. Old mouth of river.—12. Channel cut in 1828.—13. Creek—where State Street is now.



PLAN OF FORT DEARBORN

1. Tunnel and Underground Well.—2. Wicket Gate.—3. Main Gate.—4. Store House.—5. Contractor's Store.—6. Magazine.—7. Officers' Barracks.—8. Block Houses. 9. Stone House.—10. Soldiers' Barracks.—11. First Floor—Guard House. Second Floor—Hospital Store.—12. Commisary Officers' Barracks.

You would find the turnstone on the shore, turning stones over to get the insects under them. His bill is turned up a little bit, so he can turn the stones over. MATILDA DELANO

The little green heron goes far out into the swamp to get his food. The great blue heron gets his food in the same way, only he wades out a little farther.

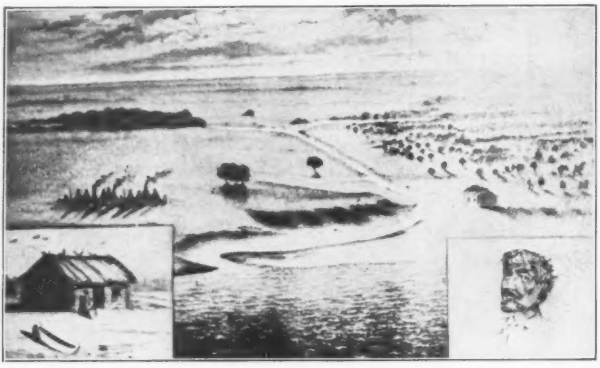
They walk out very slowly, and when they see a fish or frog come up above the surface they stick their long bill after it. We saw the great blue heron in Lincoln Park. GENEVA HARRISON

The snipe has very large toes. They act like snowshoes, so that he can walk in marshy places without sinking. He likes to go into marshy places and put his bill in the mud and get worms. The snipe's bill is moveable at the end, and he has his eyes near the back of his head so when he is

digging he can see a hunter come. The snipe is a good game bird, but he is very hard to catch.

The woodcock is very much like the snipe in habits. He likes to stay in marshy places too, and eat earthworms. The woodcock is disappearing very fast, because the laws do not protect him. He goes south in winter. Down in Texas they have a law that no game birds can be shipped out of the State. The time they are killed is mostly in the spring when they are nesting. They kill the old birds and the little ones are not strong enough to take care of themselves. HELEN BRECKER

Wild rice grew on the banks of the Chicago River. The Indian squaws would go out and gather it long ago. They would paddle along in their



CHICAGO A HUNDRED YEARS AGO

canoes. When they came to a big patch they would bend the rice stalks over their canoes and beat them. They had a big mat in the bottom. They would empty the rice into a big basket. They gathered until their baskets were filled. They used the rice for food. ENID WINGERT

HUNTING

The life and comfort of the Indian depended upon his skill and success in hunting. They needed the skins for clothing, for the wigwams, and the meat for food. The Indians had to learn the habits of the animals in order to catch them. FOWLER MCCORMICK

BUFFALO HUNTING

When the Indians go to hunt Buffalo the whole village goes—the squaws, papooses, and all the children. They like to watch the hunt, and they are afraid to stay home. They climb a tree or hide behind the bushes. When they see the herd they give the signal. FRIEDA MAYNARD

BLACKBOARD DRAWING BY THIRD-GRADE CHILDREN

The Indians sometimes hunt the buffalo with decoys. When the Indians hunt with decoys they cover themselves with wolf skins. A herd of buffalo

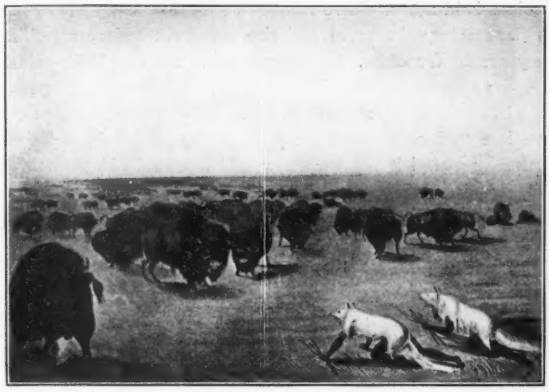
WILD RICE

BUFFALO DANCE

is not afraid of one or two wolves. Then the Indians creep up near enough and use their bows and arrows. ARNOLD HORWEEN

ANTELOPE HUNTING

The Indians have to study the different habits of the animals. This is one of the ways the Indians hunt antelope. They put a stick with a piece



HUNTING BUFFALO WITH DECOYS

of something that is red on it. They lower and raise it. They did this because they found that the antelope were very inquisitive and would come very near. The Indian would be hiding in the tall grass and would shoot with his bow and arrow. MATILDA DELANO

DEER HUNTING

The Indians sometimes hunted deer at night in canoes. They would put a piece of birch bark in front of the canoe and sit behind the bark. They

would hold a torch in front and it would blind the deer. Then they would paddle nearer and the deer was not able to get away because the light confused it.

HILDEGARDE PABST

HUNTING BEARS

The Indians held a bear dance before hunting bears.

The Indians worry the bears and tire them out before attacking them, because they are so ferocious. Sometimes bears are caught in traps.

RUTH COOPER

SNOWSHOE HUNTING

In snowshoe regions a snowshoe hunt was preceded by a dance giving thanks to the Great Spirit for the snow which would aid them in bringing

HUNTING BUFFALO ON SNOWSHOES

home their game. Snowshoes serve well in hunting moose and buffalo, as they could be easily surrounded or overtaken in the deep snow.

VINCENT FISCHER

FISHING WITH BOW AND ARROW

Usually the Indians spear the fish, but sometimes they shoot the sunfish with bow and arrow. There is a little string tied to the bow and arrow, so when the arrow goes into the water the fish will not take it away.

PAUL TABER

FISHING

They take a long pole, with barbs in the end of the pole, and put attractive bait on the barbs. They twirl the pole. That attracts the fish. It catches them on the barbs.

ARNOLD HORWEEN

The soap root was used at a low stage of water, late in summer. Indians dug the root and pounded it. This was rubbed by handfuls on rocks in streams. This roiled the water and made it somewhat foamy. Fish

were affected by it. They became stupid and came to the surface. The Indians used scoop baskets to catch them. HELEN BRECKER

PICTURE-WRITING

I am going to tell you how the Indians write. They don't write. They make pictures instead of writing as we do. They write on skins—sometimes on deer skins, sometimes on buffalo skins, and sometimes on birch bark. When they want to remember anything they paint it, and that is the way they do. ENID WINGERT

FISHING WITH BOW AND ARROW

THE INDIANS IN LINCOLN PARK

The Indians came to Lincoln Park on Chicago's birthday, October, 1905. A hundred years ago the Indians' grandparents lived here. This is a picture of an Indian wigwam that was in Lincoln Park. ANNA WIEBOLDT

FORT DEARBORN

Fort Dearborn was built for the people and to protect the traders. The fort was built on the highest part of the river where it turned south. The government saw that they needed a fort, so they sent Captain Whistler to Chicago to build it. Captain Whistler came in a schooner and the soldiers came on foot. Captain Whistler got along very well until he came to the mouth of the river. It became so shallow there that they could see the sand

at the bottom. He could not get his boat through, so he had to unload. Some Indians were standing on the shore and saw the schooner. One

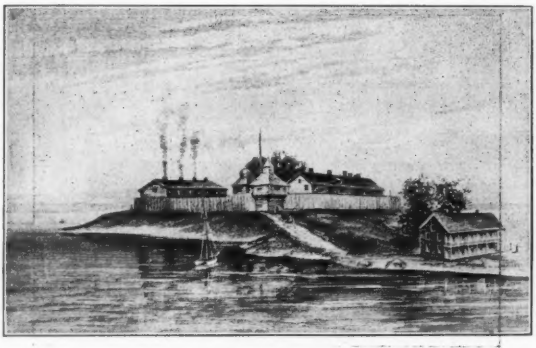
INDIAN WIGWAM IN LINCOLN PARK

Indian said "Great bird." Another Indian chief said, "Canoe with wings." Captain Whistler's soldiers came to Chicago safely. It was very hard to build a fort.

ELIZABETH BECK

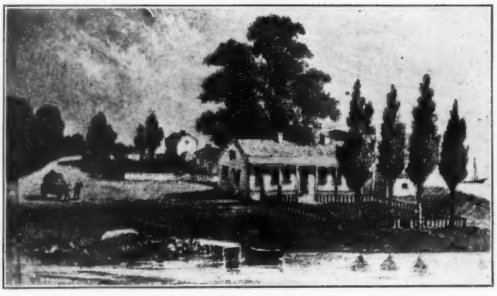
THE KINZIE HOME

Mr. Kinzie sent to Canada for some lumber. He enlarged his house by building rooms at the side. He made a garden around it. Then he planted Lombardy poplars in front of it. When Mr. Kinzie's house was finished it



FORT DEARBORN

was so snug and cozy that the other settlers called it the Kinzie mansion. The Indians were very friendly. They never knocked at the door. They would walk in and say "How, how." That meant hello. Then they would



THE KINZIE HOUSE

sit down and tell the children stories. Mr. Kinzie played the fiddle and the Indians liked to watch the children dance. MARGUERITE DOEPFNER

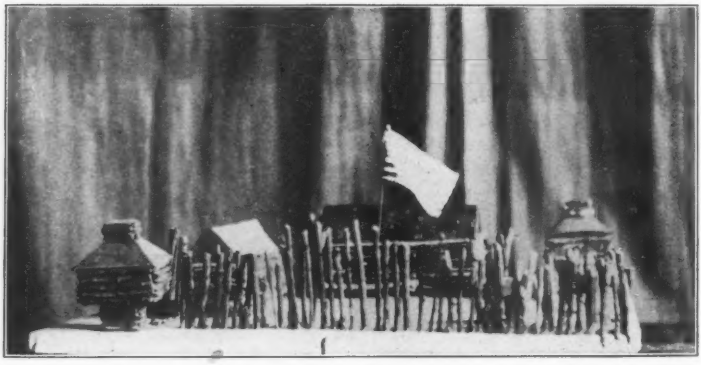
FUR-TRADING

When Fort Dearborn was built Mr. Kenzie built a trading post. At the trading post many Indians came to trade and many canoes dotted the river. The cabin in which the trading was carried on stood on the north side of the

river and was built behind the cabin of Mr. Kinzie. The Indians in exchange for the furs got guns, kettles, hatchets, blankets, and sometimes ammunition. Some Indians came down the Mississippi River, up the Illinois, through the Des Plaines, across the Chicago portage to the Chicago river. Mr. Kinzie

INDIAN FUR-TRADING

had the Indians get furs for him because they could capture the animals more easily. They brought otter, mink, beaver, bear, martin, wolf, fox, wild-



MODEL OF FORT DEARBORN MADE BY THIRD-GRADE CHILDREN

cat and deer. The squaws sometimes brought little birch-bark boxes and canoes filled with maple sugar, because they wanted to get ribbons, beads, and looking-glasses.

HILDEGARDE PABST

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

The Revolutionary War was a war we had with England to free ourselves from them. The war of 1812 was another war we had with England. That was at the same time we had trouble with the Indians in Chicago.

In 1812 the Indians felt very brave, and they looked in at the fort and said, "The white squaws will not be so glad in a little while." The reason that the Indians felt so brave was because the English were against the people in Chicago.

HELEN STAUFFER

[*To be continued*]

READING FOR LITTLE CHILDREN

ELSIE AMY WYGANT
Second Grade, University Elementary School

The first half of the year the industrial history in this grade attempts to make vivid and to put meaning into the modern process of food-getting. To make it vivid the children go to the sources of supply and distribution about Chicago, a farm, the wholesale district on South Water Street, a bakery, a milk depot, a grain elevator, an express depot, and shipping docks. To give background and meaning to it, stories are told of a more primitive means of doing similar things.

The life of simple people is pictured by stories of Indians, the people of Borneo and New Guinea, of Hawaii, and others. With the environment thus given, the children suggest and experiment with possible ways and means of food-getting. After their experimentation and invention the means people actually employed is either told in stories or explanations of exhibits at the Field Museum, or is read from reading-slips prepared for this purpose.

While the "Story of Ab," the boy of the Stone Age in England, is told most fully as a type of a primitive people, yet the stories of other peoples are also told in order that the general idea may be broader, less individualistic.

The following series of reading will be used in this way:

I. Workers of Today.
II. The Indian Way.
III. "Indian Rice Harvest" by Jennie Hall (printed in *Francis W. Parker School Leaflets,* Series No. 2).
IV. Indian Harvest of Grass-seed.
V. Storing Food.

VI. An Indian Tepee.
VII. A Sioux Brave.
VIII. The Daughter of a Sioux.
IX. The Indian Dresser of Skins.
X. The Field Museum.
XI. The Story of Sitkala-Sä.

By Elsie A. Wygant, to be printed in successive numbers of the *Elementary School Teacher.*

XII. Stories Adapted from Stanley Waterloo's "Story of Ab":

1. A Little Brown Baby.
2. Meeting a Hyena.
3. Inside the Cave.
4. A Meal in the Cave.
5. The Forest at Night.
6. Old Mok.
7. Evenings in the Cave.
8. The Great Stone Kettle.
9. The Feast About the Stone Kettle.

(Of the above XII, Nos. 1, 3, 4, and 5 appeared in the *Elementary School Teacher,* January, 1907, Vol. VII, No. 5, and the rest will appear in successive numbers of this Journal.)

XIII. Flour.
XIV. An Old Flour Mill.
XV. Mills.
XVI. Hominy.
XVII. How We Made a Mortar.
XVIII. Corn Husking, I and II.
XIX. Corn Meal in the South.

By Jennie Hall, printed in the *Francis W. Parker School Leaflets,* Series No. 2.

XX. "Alice's Supper." Music by Eleanor Smith in "Songs for Little Children;" words reprinted in *Elementary School Teacher,* January, 1907, Vol. VII, No. 5.

WORKERS OF TO-DAY

We had a luncheon at school.

We had bread and butter, eggs and cocoa, berries and cream.

We cooked it all ourselves.

Yet it took at least fifty other people to get that luncheon.

The farmer, the miller, the dairy maid, the train hands, the teamsters, the wholesale merchants, the grocer, and the delivery boy all helped to get our luncheon.

At least fifty more people worked to make our clothes.

The farmer, the spinner, the dyer, the weaver, the tanner, the tailor, the train hands, the wholesale merchant, the retail merchant, and the delivery boy all helped to make our clothes.

At least one hundred more worked to build our house.

The men in the lumber camp, the stone-cutter in the quarry, the brick-makers, the glass-blowers, the paint-mixers, the mortar-makers, the iron-moulders, the architect, the digger, the mason, the plumber, the glazier, the plasterer, the painter, the roofer, and the gardener all helped to build our house.

> Richman, poorman, beggarman, thief,
> Doctor, lawyer, merchant, chief!

All except the beggar and the thief work for each other and for us.

THE INDIAN WAY

Long ago it was not so.

One family got its own food and clothes and home.

An Indian family even now get their own food, make their own clothes and build their own home.

The father goes out to hunt.

He kills an elk or deer or buffalo or beaver or mountain sheep; may be only a squirrel or rabbit.

The mother carries the animal home on a sled or on her back.

She makes the skin into clothes or into a cover for the tepee.

She cuts some of the meat to eat at once.

Some she hangs to dry in the sun or over a smoking fire.

She digs roots from the ground.

Arrow root, the root of the wild hyacinth, sassafras, and many others are good to eat.

The children gather nuts and berries; they search for bird's eggs and wild honey.

Some Indians gather water-lily seeds to grind into flour.

Some grind sun-flower seeds and make cakes of this flour.

Some make flour of acorns.

Some cut off the tender, green ends of cat-tails which makes a good soup.

Many gather the wild rice which grows in the swamp places.

Whatever they have, the father and mother and children must get for themselves.

INDIAN HARVEST OF GRASS-SEED

Many kinds of grass seed are good to eat.

Sand-grass grows in dry, sandy places.

It grows about Chicago.

It grows in California, too.

In California the Indian women gather the seed.

In the early fall when the seeds are ripe an Indian squaw goes out to gather them.

She carries a funnel-shaped basket in one hand.

In the other hand, she carries something that looks like a tennis racket.

She beats the grass heads over the basket with this racket.

The seeds fall into the basket.

When it is full she puts it on her back.

She holds it there with a band of buckskin which goes around her forehead.

She leans far forward as she walks.

The baskets are large and when they are full they are heavy.

When she gets home she puts the seeds into a shallow basket.

She drops hot coals in also and shakes the basket.

This roasts the seeds; then they are good to eat.

STORING FOODS

Indians must gather their seeds, acorns, berries, and nuts in the fall.

When the snow comes they can get no more.

They do not eat all the meat which they get on a hunt at one time.

Their food must be kept perhaps all winter.

Many foods must be kept dry or they spoil.

Some must be kept cold and damp to be good.

Dogs, rats, mice, squirrels, beetles, and ants all like these things to eat too.

Some men learned to store food where animals could not get it.

They learned to hide some things in dry rocky caves.

They learned to bury some in the cold damp ground.

Some people who live on an island far in the west put their food into gourds.

They set a tall pole in the dirt floor of their houses.

They put a cross-bar on this pole and here they hung the gourds full of food.

It was out of the reach of dogs and mice.

Some people in the south set a pole in the ground out of doors.

They make a great clay vase on top.

They put a thatch roof over the vase.

Here they keep corn and seeds.

One tribe of Indians used to build their storehouse together.

They made a circular wall of stone and earth.

They made a roof of branches, grass, leaves, and clay.

They set this house in a stream in a shady place.

Here they stored the corn, fruit, meat, and fish that belonged to all the tribe.

Some Indians move often from place to place.

These Indians store their food in clay jars and fine woven baskets which are easy to carry.

Many hundred years ago women learned that cats ate mice.

They knew that mice ate their grain.

So they went into the woods and got the young of the wild cats.

They were pets for the children.

As they grew up they were tame.

They kept the mice away from the grain.

And so it happens that we have cats about our homes today.

EDITORIAL NOTES

"In the Beginning"

The night was exceedingly beautiful, and the out-door sights and sounds lent their aid to the tender influences of the wonderfully inspiring music, skilfully rendered by the Thomas Orchestra at the last of the open-air concerts in Ravinia Park. Gentle memories were awakened of other wonderful evenings in the past, when, by some strange freak of memory, a picture flashed before our eyes of a scene in the dingy office of the superintendent of public schools in a city not a thousand miles from Chicago, one morning, not a dozen years ago. A committee of Benevolently Inclined Mothers waited upon the venerable educator to discuss plans for putting music into the public schools. The worthy man listened patiently, then, after due deliberation said that he had received *his* education in these same schools, and that what was good enough for him then was good enough for the children now. The committee retired and waited.

In Course of Time

In due time the worthy man died, unaided by chloroform. The Benevolently Inclined Mothers again called at the office, and when plans had been explained, and due assurance given that this would bring no added burden to the city finances, as the Mothers and Assisting Fathers would bear all expenses, the arrangements were completed. An enthusiastic, tactful, and, above all, capable teacher soon won a place for herself and music in the public schools.

Two years later when Children's Day exercises were given in that city in one of the large churches the children's singing was fine, but when, at the close, all in the large church were asked to rise and sing America, and all the children in the body of the church joined in song, heartily and sweetly, and all knew the words of every verse without book or leader, a thing unheard of in years gone by, one of the Assisting Fathers remarked to one of the Benevolently Inclined Mothers, "That is what your 'Music in the Public Schools' has done."

The Body—Where is the Spirit?

In another smaller city more than a thousand miles from Chicago we were present at the closing exercises of the grammar grades of the one school in the place, and saw the rendition of "Nearer My God to Thee," given as it had been for several years, following the directions in the "Model Exercise," printed in the *State Teachers' Manual,* something like this: "'Nearer My God to Thee,' [pupils stand reverently upon both feet and slowly roll the eyes upward as they sing,] 'E'en though it be a cross that raiseth me;' [raise the right hand slowly and point to an imaginary cross, then fold the hands upon the breast,]" and so on. Draw your own conclusions as to the aesthetic and ethic effect upon the minds of the singers.

The course of study prescribed for the public schools of that entire state outside of the few largest cities, lays much emphasis upon "the 45 combinations," upon "rules and definitions," which in arithmetic "must always be learned accurately and perfectly before any problems are solved," upon many other things which are Greek to the teacher who has not lived in Greece, and she is obliged "to promise to follow exactly in all details this course of study," and unless she can affirm "that she has so followed in all details this course of study," she forfeits her salary and her right to continue teaching in the schools of the state. Think of that, ye men and women who are allowed to teach every conceivable thing, in every conceivable manner, even though it may happen to lead to utter confusion, just as you believe something is about to be evolved.

Pharisee, Sinner, or Saint

Are we in danger of saying, "I thank Thee, Lord that I am not as other men"? How may the truth be reached, the truth of beauty, of sincerity, of high ideals? It is our earnest wish, our most cherished hope, that we may neither be blinded by egotistic satisfaction with self and with present conditions, nor, in our aspiration after better things, be led far from the truth by our false ideals, or by our lack of training, of keen perceptions, of clear brain looking to the desired end along vistas of sound common-sense.